

Chapter 1 : White Black Bears and Blonde Grizzlies, Alaska Department of Fish and Game

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The distortion is caused by the plexiglass helicopter bubble. State wildlife biologist Kevin White was flying a moose survey north of Juneau when he and the helicopter pilot spotted a group of strange animals. It was these practically white bear cubs. White guessed the cubs are all about a year old – probably born last spring. An almost white black bear has been roaming the Skagway area, and many wildlife biologists have their own stories about unusual-looking bears. Grizzly bears are called brown bears in coastal Alaska. Fishery biologist Leon Shaul has spent decades working around rivers near where White saw the unusual bears. He said a blonde sow with snow white ears has frequented the area around their seasonal fish survey camp their since the early s. Shaul and his crews have watched her raise several sets of cubs over the years, some with pale coloration like those White saw, and others the more typical brown color. Hair color – or coat color – is determined by genetics. Kris Hundertmark is a former Fish and Game biologist now serving as assistant professor of wildlife ecology at University of Alaska Fairbanks. He speculated that an unusual recessive gene could cause the white coloration. As a recessive gene, it would have to be present in both parents to be expressed in a cub. The chance of the gene being expressed is better in a population of bears that is isolated or contained, such as an island population. That could increase the chance of a bear mating with a related bear that also carries the gene. As White pointed out, one of the cubs in the unusual bear family looks more typically brown. Like a litter of puppies, bear siblings may look different from one another. This light-colored black bear has been roaming the Skagway area since it was a cub. Blonde bears frequently have darker legs, he said, and color variations are often regional. Southeast Alaska also has light colored bears on some islands and not others. Glacier bears are black bears with a bluish-grey color. Last year Beier was capturing and tagging bears in the same area where White saw his light-colored bears and caught an extremely blonde bear. You have to view pictures with caution. This white color phase is most common on Princess Royal and Gribbel islands, and accounts for about 10 percent of the bears. A litter of Kermode bears may also include black-colored bears. Glacier bears are black bears with a bluish-grey color, but this Skagway bear is even lighter than the usual glacier bear color. Sometimes the public takes a special interest in an unusual bear. In , the state board of game took regulatory action to protect a white-colored black bear in the Juneau area. At this time, as a result of that incident, Alaska hunting regulations specify that a white colored bear may not be taken in Unit 1C the Juneau area. A light-colored black bear in the Skagway area has generated a lot of interest this summer, and members of that community approached the Alaska Board of Game about protecting the animal. In August, the Board of Game passed an emergency regulation that prohibits hunters from taking white-colored black bears in Unit 1D. This is unusual for wildlife managers, who are used to managing populations of animals, not individuals. Kuiu island , Petersburg, they are mostly all just black. A few years ago he flew over the open alpine country of the Chilkat Mountains, the range on the west side of Lynn Canal. Every one of those bears was just all black. He may be reached at riley.

Chapter 2 : Black And White Bear Images, Stock Photos & Vectors | Shutterstock

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It is clear from everyday life that the control of mental activity meets with some success: And people who are grieving over a loss sometimes conclude that their eventual recovery was the result of putting the loss out of mind. Within a certain range of everyday uses, then, people can exercise some mental control. But in terms of the overall topic of enhancing human performance, the key issues for this chapter are research and theory on why people suppress thoughts, how effective thought suppression may be, what later consequences may result from it, and what alternatives exist that may be more effective in the pursuit of freedom from unwanted thoughts. The form of thought suppression considered in this chapter is the intentional avoidance of a thought or category of thoughts: Wegner and Schneider distinguished between primary and auxiliary suppression: This chapter is about primary thought suppression. The National Academies Press. Rather than having a handy replacement thought, in primary thought suppression one has no obvious "next thing to think. Such books tout themselves as aids to the satisfaction of a variety of self-improvement desires, among them helping to produce freedom from worry, fear, depression, addiction, overweight, anger, low self-esteem, obsession, victimization, bad relationships, thoughts about traumatic life events, secrets of the past, stress, failure at work, and so on see Starker, In general, it appears that thought suppression may be chosen as a selfhelp strategy when people are attempting to avoid painful emotions e. Studies of the unwanted thoughts of both normal individuals and those diagnosed as having clinically significant obsessions indicate that people have a wide range of reasons to wish their thoughts away Edwards and Dickerson, ; Rachman and de Silva, ; Rachman and Hodgson, ; Salkovskis and Harrison, Although some people prefer to use thought suppression more than do others, everyone seems to engage in suppression from time to time Wegner and Zanakos, in press. Thought suppression is often chosen as a mental control strategy in performance contexts. There are a variety of thoughts and actions that one might not want to experience when performance is at issue. Like the desire not to hook the golf shot, the desire to avoid any performance flaw can be a compelling motive for suppression in a variety of performance settings. Page Share Cite Suggested Citation: The idea that people can stop thoughts at will, and should be encouraged to do so, has been present in the psychological literature at least since the late nineteenth century see Rosen and Orenstein, Thought stopping was introduced as a psychotherapeutic regimen in the contemporary literature by Wolpe and Lazarus Although there are a number of variations on the technique, in general a therapist recommends that a client suffering from some unwanted thought practice stopping it usually first with the therapist, then later alone. In some variations, a client may be encouraged to say "stop" aloud, or even make a noise, move abruptly, or self-administer a mildly painful stimulus each time the thought recurs. In some cases, a therapist proposes that the client replaces the thought with some specific distractor. The technique of thought stopping is now widely recommended as a potentially effective treatment for several psychological symptoms e. Thought suppression, then, is both a self-help technique and a strategy that is recommended by psychotherapists. The answer to this question depends on how successful one wants the suppression to be. If one is asking for total victory, then the answer is a clear no. Overall, studies of thought-stopping techniques have indicated the likely ineffectiveness of suppression for some time. Clinical reports that thought stopping can be effective in individual cases are balanced by others that report it is ineffective, and such case research is difficult to evaluate or summarize. Summaries of the literature have repeatedly concluded that the technique remains unproven despite considerable research Reed, ; Tryon, In sum, thought suppression as a therapeutic regimen for people suffering from naturally occurring unwanted thoughts does not appear to provide relief from those thoughts. When a person attempts to suppress a thought under instructions to do so in a laboratory experiment, in turn, various measures indicate that the thought is still very much in mind. Although subjects regularly voiced a plan to distract themselves, and did report intervals of successful absorption in other things, they were incapable of sustaining suppression for very long. The typical participant expressed a replacement thought only to the end of a sentence, paragraph, or some other pause in the flow, and then abruptly signalled the occurrence of a thought about a white bear. On

average, this happened more than once a minute in a 5-minute period. This effect has been replicated in several investigations Clark et al. People show similar vexations in their oral and written reports when they try to suppress thoughts that are more involving and relevant than a white bear. People cannot easily suppress thoughts of depressing events when they are asked to do so Conway et al. By the simple measure of conscious reports of thought recurrence, then, thought suppression does not work. Somewhat more surreptitious measures suggest similar conclusions. Psychophysiological evidence suggests the difficulty of thought suppression without any reporting requirement at all. For example, when subjects are asked to suppress thoughts that are exciting say, of sex, they show skin conductance level SCL reactivity rivaling the strength of reactions that occur when they are asked explicitly to entertain those thoughts Wegner et al. Other studies have also called on subjects to inhibit thinking about an exciting thought using different kinds of instructions or situational pressures and similarly observed increased SCL in comparison with subjects given no special instructions Cohen et al. Wegner and Erber examined the accessibility of suppressed thoughts by imposing cognitive loads on subjects who were attempting suppression during cognitive tasks. In one experiment, subjects made associations to word prompts as they tried to suppress thinking about a target word e. Under the load imposed by time pressure to make fast associations, subjects gave the target word in response to target-related prompts e. In this experiment, reaction times for naming colors of words under conditions of cognitive load were found to be longer when subjects had been asked to suppress thinking of the word than they were without load or when subjects had been asked to concentrate on the word see also Wegner et al. The results of these investigations support the idea that thought suppression prompts the creation of an automatic cognitive process that searches for the suppression target. In fact, that corner of the mind makes a person more sensitive in the act of suppression than when one is intentionally concentrating on that thought. Further indications of the potential ineffectiveness of thought suppression can be found in research on directed forgetting. To some degree, the suppression of thoughts is related to forgetting: This was an early observation of Freud e. In studies of intentional forgetting see reviews by Anderson and Bjork, in press; R. Bjork, , subjects are given material to learn and are asked at some point to forget it. The results of this research indicate that the recall of to-be-forgotten information is indeed impaired in comparison with information that is to be remembered. People are less able to volunteer those items they have been instructed to forget than the ones they have been asked to remember. It is possible, of course, that subjects in such experiments are reluctant to recall the information just because they are trying to humor the experimenter and go along with the request to forget. But a more subtle measure of memory suggests another indication of forgetting, one that is less susceptible to intentional contrivance: This interference is not as likely to occur if subjects have been directed to forget the first set R. Bjork, ; Geiselman et al. This finding does not mean that the to-be-forgotten information is gone, however, because there are a variety of signs that it still has important effects. One key finding is that the recognition of to-be-forgotten information remains at about the same level as corresponding to-be-remembered information e. In other words, when a memory test involves asking subjects to recognize whether specific items are ones that appeared in the initial memory list rather than asking for free recall of the items, the subjects are as prone to recognize the items they tried to forget as those they tried to remember. Finally, recall of the to-be-forgotten items can be reinstated fully by their being presented again as to-be-remembered items Geiselman and Bagheri. These findings and others suggest it is reasonable to say that directed forgetting produces retrieval inhibition. Intentional access to the to-beforgotten items through free recall is inhibited, but the items remain at full strength as far as their storage in memory. Considered together, the studies of thought suppression and directed forgetting suggest an interesting possibility. It may be that environmental cues to suppressed thoughts or the tobe-forgotten items play a particularly important role in returning those items to conscious attention. These findings are comparable to the findings of research on directed forgetting that indicate that the recognition of to-be-forgotten items is unimpaired. Taken together, the studies suggest that the success of thought suppression may depend on the absence of environmental cues to the thought. A person may be able to keep a thought from mind, or to inhibit the retrieval of a memory, as long as the person is not reminded of the target by cues in the environment. Although research on this possibility is incomplete, this suggestion makes sense in view of the finding that distractions from unwanted

thoughts or emotions can sometimes be quite successful. In terms of directed forgetting, it is also known that the presentation of new information to be remembered aids in inhibiting the recall of items that are to be forgotten Gelfand and Bjork, It is possible that when circumstances allow a person to be isolated from cues to unwanted thoughts or inhibited memories, the person can achieve some minimal level of freedom from those thoughts or memories. To the extent that one can become immersed in absorbing activities that have no relevance to suppressed thoughts or memories, one may escape those thoughts for a time. But there are many sources of reminders, sometimes very subtle, that can bring suppressed thoughts back very quickly, and sensitivity to those reminders will remain for some time following suppression Wegner and Erber, The evidence currently available indicates that thought suppression can be difficult, even in the short run. When there are compelling replacements for an unwanted thought, as in the case of new information that is presented during intentional forgetting, a person may be able to avoid an unwanted thought, perhaps indefinitely. The thought returns to mind in such sharp bursts when one is reminded of it that one may well find oneself trying to suppress it again. It appears there are moments when it is even possible to return to formerly suppressed thoughts and think about them on purpose. Thought Rebound Some laboratory research indicates that thinking about a topic that was once suppressed can become unusually preoccupying. This rebound of a suppressed thought was initially observed among subjects who had been asked to suppress the thought of a white bear Wegner et al. The subjects individually thought aloud for 5 minutes and rang a bell if the thought of a white bear came to mind during suppression. As noted above, the subjects typically rang the bell and mentioned the thought of a white bear occasionally during this time. When the subjects were next asked to think about a white bear for a similar interval, they produced more mentions and more bell rings than did subjects who had simply been thinking of a white bear from the start. The rebound effect has been observed several times for bell rings and mentions during a think-aloud period Wegner et al. It has also been observed when individuals write their ongoing thoughts and make check marks on paper for thought occurrences Wenzlaff Page Share Cite Suggested Citation: These experiments have typically contrasted thought frequencies that occur when subjects are asked to think about something with those that occur when subjects are asked to think about something following a period of suppressing that thought. The rebound has also been observed among individuals who were asked to think about anything not just the suppressed thought following suppression Clark et al. The effect is not always a strong one; it has not been observed at significant levels in studies attempting to replicate it with reduced sample sizes Merkelbach et al. Typically, suppression brings to mind many items other than the suppressed thought. The person turns from one distracter to another, and another, as each fails to keep the unwanted thought away. The critical feature of such unfocused self-distraction is that it creates associations between the unwanted thought and all the various distracters. If one has focused in turn on a doorknob, the weather, and an intransigent fingernail as distracters from the thought of a white bear, for instance, these items are now likely to be reminders of a white bear, at least more so than the person did before the suppression. One test of this explanation of the rebound was offered by Wegner et al. This study called for some subjects to use a "focused" self-distraction strategy for suppression. Subjects were asked to try not to think of a white bear, but to think of a red Volkswagen in case they did. This instruction was intended to help subjects avoid using their current thoughts and context as distracters and was expected to produce an attenuation of the rebound effect. And in fact, this outcome was observed for bell rings and think-aloud mentions: Presumably, subjects given the red VW as a distracting focus were later unlikely to think about red VWs very much during their opportunity to express the unwanted thought and so escaped the unusual level of contextual reminding that underlies the rebound.

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Chapter 5 : White Bear Lake Area Schools

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